

# AN EXTENSIVE OUTLINE OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR



by David G. Jensen



This Outline is more exact than many, but no grammar is exhaustive. The method and content presented here should suffice to parse most groups of words, and will assist the confident and expressive use of English, as well as facilitate acquisition of English as a second language.

This Outline regards grammatical relations as *roles* rather than *rules*, the latter too often the approach of prescriptive grammars. Its format is appropriate for both reference and instruction.

Many idiomatic, dialectic and archaic usages are included, and are clearly identified as such. Although some of these are proscribed in common practice. in the author's opinion it is important to recognize their grammatical context in order better to understand both the *logic* of their persistence, and the the *logistics* of accepted usage, so as to attain a fuller understanding of the language. Their discussion often supplies background not widely accessible from other sources.



“Words alone are certain good.”

W. B. Yeats (1889)



VERSION 1.1 OF THIS DOCUMENT



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# AN EXTENSIVE OUTLINE OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR



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## LATIN ABBREVIATIONS USED THROUGHOUT THIS WORK

ABBREVIATION	LATIN	MEANING
CF	( <i>confer</i> )	compare
EG	( <i>exempli gratia</i> )	for example
<i>etc</i>	( <i>et cetera</i> )	and so forth
NB	( <i>nota bene</i> )	additional note(s)
RF	( <i>refer</i> )	definition or source



## GLOSSARY OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS NOT DEFINED ELSEWHERE IN THIS WORK

absolute	reference not confined to a particular word or group of words
adjective	modifies a substantive
adverb	modifies a verb, adjective or another adverb
affix	significant syllable(s) appended before or after a word
antonymous (antonym)	opposite in meaning
archaic	no longer in common use
articulate (articulation)	to form sounds; the act of speech
aspiration	the 'h' sound; phonetically, a <i>glottal fricative</i> (CF <i>glottal stop</i> )
clause	(dependent or independent) group of words which contains a subject and a verb
colloquial	permissible in informal conversation, proscribed in formal usage
compound	two or more words of the same part of speech which act as one; generally united by a conjunction (EG Spring, summer, autumn and winter [COMPOUND SUBJECT] are the four seasons of the year.)
conjunction	connects words or groups of words
conventional	linguistic usages or proscriptions observed by social consensus
dialect	the particular forms of a language practiced by a regional segment of the general population

## GLOSSARY, *completed*

elide (elision)	skip or merge a sound (usually a vowel) between two other sounds
enclitic	suffix having independent semantic content as well as grammatical function
eponymous (eponym)	derived from a proper noun
euphonic (euphony)	a sound without semantic value added to ease articulation or hearing]
formal	educated usage, suitable for special occasions
fragment	a grammatically incomplete group of related words
glottal stop	the 'uh' sound, formed at the glottis (back of the throat)
idiom	a commonly accepted usage, often metaphorical or grammatically unusual ((EG hard row to hoe, easy does it)
interjection	expresses surprise or another emotion (oh!); also greeting/departure (hello/goodbye), affirmation/negation (yes/no) <i>etc.</i>
linguistic	having to do with language
modify	to qualify (limit or add to) the meaning of a word or group of words
noun	an animate being, a place, thing or idea (animal, book, city, logic, person)
object of comparison	that which is compared to another word
obsolete	no longer used
paradigm	(pron. 'pair-a dime'); list of the forms of a word in logical order
partitive	part of the whole
phrase	group of related words
preposition	shows relation of a word or group to another word or group, often in (metaphorical) spatial and substantive terms)
proclitic	prefix having independent semantic content as well as grammatical function
pronoun	represents a noun or noun phrase
proscribed	discouraged or prohibited by custom or convention, whether or not valid grammatically
referent	word(s) to which another word(s) refers
subject of comparison	that to which another word is compared
substantive	a noun, pronoun, or any word or group of words used in that capacity
syntax	word order
use (usage)	customary linguistic act
verb	shows an action, event or state of being
voiced, -less	having (b, v, d, z, g) or lacking (p, f, t, s, k) vibration of the larynx
word	a customary group of sounds having symbolic or functional value

# 1 NOUN

## 1.1 TYPES

1.1.1 COMMON one of a group which possesses a distinctive set of characteristics

1.1.1.1 CONCRETE a material being, animate or inanimate (horse, mountain, house)

1.1.1.2 ABSTRACT a quality, state, activity or idea *etc* (mercy, life, motion, extent)

1.1.1.3 COLLECTIVE a group of persons, objects *etc* treated as a unit (crowd, pack, fleet)

1.1.1.3.1 with a *sg* verb denotes the group as a whole

EG a. A *flock* of birds was flying overhead. b. Their *team* refuses to play another game.

1.1.1.3.2 with a *pl* verb (esp. British usage) denotes the separate members of a group

EG a. The entire *class* are absent today. b. Our *team* have spoken to their captain.

1.1.1.3.2.1 The *pl* of a common noun, without a definite article, refers to the entire group it represents.

EG a. *Mules* are stubborn. b. *Ideas* do not always represent reality.

1.1.1.3.2.2 The *pl* of a collective noun refers to two or more similar groups.

EG Both *teams* agreed to postpone the next game.

1.1.2 PROPER names a specific person or place; its first letter is capitalized (Henry, Susan, France, Denver)

1.1.2.1 A noun (often a substantive adjective) derived from a proper noun, although common in function, remains proper.

EG An *American* invented the telephone.

1.1.2.2 A common noun indicating rank, office or relationship becomes proper when used in place of a proper name.

EG a. The President will speak in public tomorrow. b. *Mother* and *Father* arrived in town yesterday.

1.1.2.3 A particular common noun, usually in quotation marks, and distinguished from the other members of its group by modifiers(s) or simply by a definite article, can be regarded as proper.

EG a. Its advertisement calls this appliance the "*miracle coffee maker*."

b. That therapy quickly became known as "*the cure*."

1.1.2.3.1 The proper use of a common noun should not be confused with a quote or reference.

EG a. As I recall, his exact word was "avenue." b. "Tome" is a synonym for "volume" or "book."

1.1.2.4 PERSONIFICATION An abstract noun or another part of speech may be personified as animate, and is capitalized.

EG a. *Fortune* favors the brave. b. *Perfect* is the enemy of *Good*.

## 1.2 PROPERTIES

1.2.1 CASE indicates the grammatical relation of a noun to the other words in a group, and is shown mostly by syntax; certain case functions can be indicated by a preposition.

1.2.1.1 SUBJECTIVE

1.2.1.1.1 NOMINATIVE shows the subject; performs the action of a verb (EG A *bird* ate the seeds on the sidewalk.)

1.2.1.1.2 VOCATIVE is used for direct address, often in an imperative or interrogative sentence; usually a proper noun

EG a. *Robert*, please hold the door. b. *Alex*, did you remember the groceries?

1.2.1.2 OBJECTIVE

1.2.1.2.1 DIRECT OBJECT receives the action of a transitive verb (EG Ann bought a new *coat* last weekend.)

1.2.1.2.2 INDIRECT OBJECT to or for whom the action of a transitive verb is performed

EG Paul bought his *son* a new coat.

1.2.1.2.2.1 The prepositions 'to' and, less often, 'for' may indicate an indirect object.

EG a. I sent the book *to* Barbara last week. b. He bought another copy *for* Steven.



1.2.1.2.3 OBJECT OF PREPOSITION noun follows a preposition, which relates it to another word

EG The house on the *corner* is vacant.

1.2.1.3 POSSESSIVE indicates possession or an analogous relation of a noun to another noun

1.2.1.3.1 nouns usually show the possessive case by the suffixes *-s sg* / *-s' pl*

EG This *book's* pages are fresh and crisp; the other *books'* condition is poor.

NB The possessive suffixes *-s* / *-s'* are sometime confused with the subjective/objective *pl* *-(e)s*; the latter plural is never spelled with an apostrophe [*'*].

1.2.1.3.2 The POSSESSIVE case may also be shown by the preposition 'of.'

EG All the doors *of* the house are locked.

1.2.1.3.2.1 'of' may also show other adjectival (cloth *of* gold), or adverbial (north *of* Alaska) relations

1.2.2 NUMBER indicates whether a noun refers to one or more than one of who or what it represents

1.2.2.1 SINGULAR one (pencil, professor, precept)

1.2.2.2 PLURAL more than one (schools, scholars, schemes)

1.2.2.2.1 Regular nouns show the plural by the suffix *-(e)s* (book/books, wish/wishes).

1.2.2.2.2 Some nouns change an internal vowel to show the plural (foot/feet, mouse/mice).

1.2.2.2.3 Certain nouns have the same form in both *sg* and *pl* (sheep/sheep, series/series).

1.2.2.2.4 Several nouns show the plural by the suffix *-en* (child/children, ox/oxen).

NB a. The *-en* suffix is Anglo-Saxon in origin. Brethren (*sg* "brother") is archaic. Possessive *-en* is found in the 1st person *sg* pronoun "mine," as well as in the archaic dialectic forms 'his'n,' 'their'n' *etc.*

b. Just as American (including Canadian) pronunciation is closer to the colonists' than that of present-day England, so do rural dialects preserve many archaic usages. So-called "hillbilly" English is more like the language of Chaucer (14th Century) than that of Shakespeare (16th Century). Phonetically, Canadian 'aboot' preserves the older pronunciation of 'ou' in 'about,' just as the (British) English possessive 'me' is the original pronunciation of 'my.'

1.2.3 GENDER indicates the sex of an animate being

1.2.3.1 MASCULINE a male person or animal (man, rooster)

1.2.3.2 FEMININE a female person or animal (woman, doe)

1.2.3.3. NEUTER inanimate object, idea *etc* (cliff, concept)

1.2.3.3.1 An animal whose gender is not specified is treated as neuter.

1.2.3.3.2 Plants are neuter.

1.2.3.4...Gender is seldom revealed by the form of a noun; exceptions include agentive suffixes *m* *-er*, *-or* / *f* *-(e)ress* (actor/actress)

1.2.3.5 UNDETERMINED Certain nouns denoting a person whose gender is not specified may be *m* or *f*. (parent, child; the use of 'it' for 'child' is questionable)

1.2.3.5.1 The 3rd person *pl* pronoun 'they' is sometimes used to represent a *sg* person whose gender is not specified. [considered poor usage]

EG If a person feels left out, *they* should start a conversation.

1.2.3.5.2 Metaphorical gender *m* or *f* may be assigned on occasion to certain *n* common nouns, usually by tradition.

EG *She's* an old ship, but remains seaworthy. [NB Latin *navis* ('ship') is also *f*, but this is likely coincidental.]

### 1.3 OTHER USES

1.3.1 PRONOUN A noun, often proper, in the possessive case may function as a pronoun.

EG Whose presentation did you like best? *Diane's*.

NB This usage may also be construed as a substantive use of an adjective.

### 1.3.2 ADJECTIVE

1.3.2.1 DESCRIPTIVE Certain nouns may be converted into descriptive adjectives by various suffixes such as -ly and -y, also enclitic -like = having properties of (friendly, warlike)

1.3.2.2 PROPER Many proper (esp. place) names can be converted into an adjective by suffixes such as -an, -ish *etc.* (American, English)

1.3.2.3 APPOSITE, or APPOSITIVE In some cases, a noun may adjoin another noun as a common adjective.

1.3.2.3.1 ATTRIBUTIVE In some cases, a noun may precede another noun as a common adjective. (child genius)

1.3.2.3.2 POSTPOSITIVE In some cases, a postpositive noun may act as a definite adjective (*Sam the Man*, 2001)

1.3.2.3.3 DISJUNCTIVE separated by commas, preceding or following its referent, many nouns can modify another noun. (the driver, our next-door neighbor; the chair of the committee, Sarah Jones)

1.3.2.4 PREDICATE NOMINATIVE A substantive may be referred to the subject by a verb, linking transitive.

EG a. Facts are the *issue* in a case. [LINKING VERB]

b. These facts are made *evidence* in a trial. [TRANSITIVE]

1.3.2.5 A noun may be converted into ANTONYMOUS adjectives by the suffixes -ful (pitiful) vs -less (pitiless).

### 1.3.3 VERB

1.3.3.1 Certain nouns may be used as verbs (to distance); other nouns are also verbs. (control, practice, run)

1.3.3.2 A noun may be converted into a transitive verb by certain affixes such as the prefix en- (enmesh), suffix -en (darken) or both (enlighten).

EG a. prefix en- (enmesh), suffix -en (darken) or both (enlighten) b. proclitic be- (belabor, belie, betoken)

1.3.4 ADVERB some nouns can modify a(n)

1.3.4.1 VERB (EG I went *home* after the meeting.)

1.3.4.1.1 Some nouns use the proclitic a- {aground, asea}.

1.3.4.1.2 Proclitic be- is used in 'betimes' (EG *Betimes* in the morning I go for a walk.)

1.3.4.2 ADJECTIVE (EG Her brother is six *feet* tall.)

1.3.4.3 ADVERB

1.3.4.3.1 SIMPLE (EG You've been working all *day* long.)

1.3.4.3.2 ABSOLUTE The noun 'wise' (= manner or regard) may be used as an enclitic (-wise) with certain definite adjectives to modify a entire clause (otherwise, elsewhere)

EG a. *Otherwise*, we will have to leave Thursday. b. *Elsewise*, we could leave early next week.

NB a. 'otherwise' may also be used as a conjunction (EG We had best arrive soon, *otherwise* it will be too late.)

b. The enclitic "-wise," retaining the hyphen, can be used with nouns as an adverb (fact wise, function-wise, perception-wise); this usage is often colloquial.

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1.3.4.3.3 The occasional ambiguity of the parts of speech, and that they are functions rather than categories, is evident in the these examples

a. That book costs twenty dollars.

'costs' here is an intransitive verb modified by adverbial 'dollars.'

That 'dollars' is not a predicate adjective is shown in the following'

That book costs dearly vs That book costs small.

b. The cost of that book is twenty dollars.

'cost' here is a noun and 'dollars' is a predicate adjective (not substantive).

c. That book cost me twenty dollars.

'cost' here is a transitive verb modified by adverbial 'dollars.'

d. That book is not worth twenty dollars.

'worth' is a predicate adjective modified by adverbial 'dollars.' [CF 'worthy']

e. The real worth of that book is not twenty dollars.

'worth' here is a noun, and 'dollars' a predicate adjective.

1.3.4.4 PREPOSITION Certain nouns with a proclitic form a preposition. (atop, beside)

1.3.4.5 INTERJECTION When separated by a period or (more often) an exclamation point from the substantive it modifies, the disjunctive noun may be considered an interjection; its use is *colloquial*.

EG a. *Cancellation*. That is hardly what any of us expected.

b. *Epoxy!* That is not the adhesive recommended for this purpose.

#### 1.4 WHEN OMITTED

1.4.1 A noun may be omitted when it is the subject of successive independent clauses in a compound sentence.

EG The days become shorter in winter, and grow longer in summer.

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal blue or grey ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There are no margins, text, or other markings on the paper.

## 2 PRONOUN

### 2.1 TYPES

2.1.1 PERSONAL represents a noun in relation to the speaker of a sentence

EG *I* found the hotel where *you* said *they* were staying.

2.1.1.1 'one' denotes a hypothetical third person or an object

EG *One* would have expected the room to have an alarm clock; do you have *one*?

2.1.2 IMPERSONAL with an intransitive verb, the subject 'it' represents a general condition

EG a. *It* rained all winter. b. *It* seems warmer today than yesterday.

2.1.2.1 'it' may also refer to a predicate substantive or adjective

EG Who is at the door? *It* is Barbara, or at least *it* looks like her from here.

CF What is the weather like today? It is cold outside. ['It' here represents 'weather']

2.1.3 REFLEXIVE represents the subject acting upon itself; formed by affixing enclitic -self *sg* / -selves *pl* to the personal pronoun, possessive form of the 1st and 2nd persons, and objective of the 3rd.

EG a. I burned *myself* frying the eggs. b. Help *yourselves* to some breakfast.

2.1.4 INTENSIVE emphasizes a noun or personal pronoun; has the same forms as a reflexive pronoun

2.1.4.1 An intensive pronoun usually functions as an adjective; its use as a pronoun is colloquial.

2.1.4.1.1. EG a. I saw *herself* today. b. *Himself* is expected to arrive soon.

2.1.4.2 'you', stated as the subject of an imperative [§11.2.4] sentence, intensifies its identity as subject

EG *You* do that right now!)

2.1.4.2.1 Separated by a comma, 'you' is vocative and intensifies the subject (EG *You*, why are you late?)

2.1.5 DISJUNCTIVE has the same forms as the objective personal pronouns, or, more intensively, as the reflexive and intensive pronouns.. Its use is adjectival and colloquial.

EG . Oh, *them*, they wanted to go there yesterday. b. *Myself*, I wouldn't go near the place.

2.1.6 INDEFINITE represents a noun, the identity of which is unknown or not specified (somebody, someone, something, anybody, anyone, anything, everybody, everyone, everything)

EG a. Is *anybody* home? b. *Something* is wrong with the doorbell.

2.1.7 NEGATIVE represents the absence of any person or thing (nobody, no one, none, nothing)

EG a. *No one* answered when I rang b. I hope that *nothing* else is the matter.

2.1.8 RELATIVE introduces a relative (adjective) clause (who, which, that)

EG The guest *who* just left mailed the letters *that* I wrote today, and *which* I had meant to write sooner.

2.1.8.1 INDEFINITE RELATIVE PRONOUN referent is often not stated in the sentence, and so introduces a substantive rather than adjective clause [who(so)ever, what(so)ever, who, what, which]

EG a. *Whoever* did that did not hear *what* I had said. b. I will look for *whatever* caused the damage and *who* did it.

2.1.8.1.1 When the referent is stated, an indefinite form of the relative pronoun indicates uncertainty.

EG Someone, *whoever* it was, gave us wrong directions.

2.1.8.2 With certain nouns of time and manner, modified by 'same,' 'as' rather than "that" may introduce a relative clause. [colloquial; proscribed in formal usage]

EG a. Edgar sat down the *same* moment *as* the choir started singing. b. I will leave early the *same* way *as* I came in.

2.1.9 INTERROGATIVE introduces a question (who, what) [EG *Who* is that man, and *what* did he say?]

2.1.9.1 'which' is used to represent an alternative [may be considered substantive use of an interrogative adjective]

EG *Which* does she prefer?

2.1.9.2 'whoever, whatever' may be used to intensify a question (*Whatever* is the matter?)

2.1.10 DEMONSTRATIVE indicates the relative position (literal or figurative) of the noun it represents to the speaker (this/these (near),that/those (far))

EG Edgar says *this* is the hotel they recommended, but *that* is not what I remember.

2.1.10.1 CORRELATIVE Demonstrative pronouns can also be used to distinguish between alternatives.

EG Does she mean *these* on the table, or *those* over there on the shelf?

2.1.10.2 Demonstrative use of 3rd person *pl* objective personal pronoun "them" to mean "those" is proscribed.

EG a. Did you see *them* cars racing down the street?

b. *Them* cars are (is) way too old to run that fast. [dialectic usage may prefer *sg* verb (also proscribed)]

## 2.2 PROPERTIES

2.2.1 PERSON identifies a pronoun in relation to the speaker; personal, reflexive and intensive pronouns distinguish all three persons

2.2.1.1 FIRST PERSON indicates the speaker (I *sg* / we *pl*)

2.2.1.2 SECOND PERSON indicates the party spoken to (you *sg* & *pl*)

2.2.1.3 THIRD PERSON indicates who or what is spoken of (he,she,it *sg* / they *pl*)

2.2.1.3.1 'one' is 3rd person *sg*

2.2.1.4 Indefinite pronouns are 3rd person.

EG *Someone* is at the door.

CF *Whoever* you are, identify yourself.

'Whoever,' vocative and 3rd person; although it refers to 'you,' 'Whoever' is the predicate of 'you;' 'yourself,' reflexive, 2nd person, is the direct object of imperative 'identify.'

2.2.1.5 Relative pronouns take the person of their referent.

EG a. I, who *am* present, will finish the job. b. The others, who *are* absent, cannot help.

2.2.1.6 Demonstrative pronouns are 3rd person.

### 2.2.2 CASE

2.2.2.1 following is a paradigm of PERSONAL PRONOUNS inflected to show case

<i>subj sg</i>	1. I	2. you	3. he/she/it	<i>pl</i>	1. we	2. you	3. they
<i>obj sg</i>	1.. me	2. you	3. him/her/it	<i>pl</i>	1. us	2. you	3. them
<i>poss sg</i>	1. mine	2. yours	3. his/hers/its	<i>pl</i>	1. ours	2. yours	3. theirs

2.2.2.2 RELATIVE PRONOUNS have the same forms in the *sg* and *pl*.

<i>masc/fem</i>	<i>subj</i>	who	<i>obj</i>	whom	<i>poss</i>	whose
<i>neuter</i>	<i>subj</i>	which	<i>obj</i>	which	<i>poss</i>	of which

Like 'which,' 'that' has the same form in subjective and objective, although it can also be *m* or *f*.

2.2.2.3 INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS have the same forms in both *sg* and *pl*.

<i>masc./fem</i>	<i>subj</i>	who	<i>obj</i>	whom	<i>poss</i>	whose
<i>neuter</i>	<i>subj</i>	what	<i>obj</i>	what	<i>poss</i>	of what
		which		which		of which

2.2.2.4 DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS are not inflected to show case.

EG a. I would give *this* another chance. b. We hadn't thought of *those* at first.

2.2.2.4.1 The possessive is indicated by the preposition 'of.'

EG The color *of* these is blue. What is the color *of* those?

CF What color are those? '

'What' is an interrogative adjective, and 'color' the inverted predicate of 'those.'

2.2.2.4.1.1 'of' is also used in a partitive sense, as are personal pronouns

EG Have you seen enough *of* that yet? Yes, indeed, I've seen plenty *of* it.

## 2.2.3 NUMBER

2.2.3.1 PERSONAL PRONOUNS distinguish number in the 1st (I/we) and 3rd (he,she,it/they) persons.

2.2.3.1.1 'one' is *sg*

2.2.3.2 The 2nd person has the same form in both *sg* and *pl* (you).

2.2.3.2.1 American Southern dialect adds 'all' to distinguish the plural.

EG You all [not collective, accent on 'you'] are the first guests to arrive.

2.2.3.2.1.1 This use is sometimes extended to the *sg*. [regarded as poor usage by speakers]

EG You all were the first guest to answer my invitation.

2.2.3.2.2 Colloquial dialects in Brooklyn NYC, Pittsburgh PA, Glasgow Scotland and elsewhere (USA & UK) employ 'youse' (pron. 'yuhz') for the 2nd person *pl*.

2.2.3.2.3 The 2nd person *sg* 'thou, thee, thy' *etc* and *pl* 'ye' are archaic.

2.2.3.3 Reflexive and intensive pronouns distinguish number, as do personal pronouns, and by the enclitic -self / -selves.

2.2.3.4 Indefinite pronouns are *sg*.

2.2.3.5 A relative pronoun agrees in number with its referent.

EG Susan, who *is* our neighbor's niece, *is* going to buy a car.

2.2.3.5.1 An indefinite relative pronoun, when a predicate, agrees in number with its referent.

.EG No one knows who *sg* it is, *pl* they are

2.2.3.6 The number of an interrogative pronoun is ambiguous according to context, but will agree in number with a predicate noun or pronoun.

EG *Who* did this? *sg* *Who* are those men? *pl*

2.2.3.7 Demonstrative pronouns distinguish *sg* (this/that) and *pl* (these/those).

## 2.2.4 GENDER

2.2.4.1 Personal and reflexive pronouns distinguish gender only in the 3rd person *sg* (*m* he / *f*.she / *n* it).

2.2.4.1.1 'one' as *m* or *f* refers to a hypothetical 3rd person (EG *One* expects more help in a situation like this.)

2.2.4.1.1.1 'one' as *n* refers to a single member of a group (EG Do you have any pencils? Yes, here's *one*.)

2.2.4.2 Indefinite pronouns distinguish *m* or *f* (somebody, someone *etc*) from *n* (something *etc*).

2.2.4.3 The relative pronoun 'who' distinguishes *m* or *f* from *n* 'which.'

2.2.4.3.1 'that' takes the number and gender of its referent ( the man *that* stays, the things *that* remain)

2.2.4.3.2 Indefinite relative pronouns distinguish *m* or *f* [who(so)ever, who] from *n* [what(so)ever, what, which].

2.2.4.4 Interrogative pronouns distinguish *m* or *f* (who) from *n* (what, which).

2.2.4.5 Demonstrative pronouns, except as the subject of a predicate, are *n*.

EG *This* doesn't work at all. *That* is the mechanic whom I said to ask.

## 2.2.5 OTHER USES

### 2.2.5.1 ADJECTIVE

2.2.5.1.1 The possessive forms of personal pronouns function always as pronouns, and must not be confused with possessive adjectives.

EG That carpet over there is *ours*. VS This is *our* carpet.

#### 2.2.5.1.2 An intensive pronoun is mostly used in apposition with a noun or pronoun.

EG a. Will you *yourself* (-selves) arrange to paint the house? b. The roof *itself* also needs fixing.

#### 2.2.5.1.3 An indefinite pronoun in the possessive case often functions as an adjective.

EG *Anyone's* guess would be as good as mine.

2.2.5.1.3.1 The postpositive adjective 'else' may be added to such a pronoun.

EG We would like to hear someone *else's* suggestion.

2.2.5.1.4 A disjunctive pronoun generally functions as an adjective.

#### 2.2.5.1.5 A relative pronoun in the possessive case usually functions as an adjective.

EG Our neighbor's niece, *whose* car is parked on the corner, has come to visit.

#### 2.2.5.1.6 An indefinite relative pronoun in the possessive case often functions as an adjective.

EG I wasn't sure *whose* car it was until she told me.

#### 2.2.5.1.7 An interrogative pronoun in the possessive case often functions as an adjective.

EG *Whose* car did you say it was?

#### 2.2.5.2. ADVERB

2.2.5.2.1 The intensive pronoun may be placed at the end of a clause or sentence, so that it modifies the verb rather than a substantive.

EG a. The children have finished the work *themselves*. b. Robert would like to see the work *himself*.

### 2.2.5.3 INTERJECTION

2.2.5.3.1 The interrogative pronoun "what," separated by a punctuation mark, may act as interjection; its use is colloquial.

EG a. *What*, does he mean it's already finished? b. *What!* You forgot to bring the nails? c. *What.* Nobody expected this.

### 2.2.6 WHEN OMITTED

2.2.6.1 The impersonal pronoun 'it' may be omitted in an adverbial clause introduced by the conjunction 'as.'

EG As (it) often happens, the meeting failed to achieve its goal.

#### 2.2.6.1.1 The auxiliary verb may also be omitted.

EG As (it has been) mentioned, the speaker will not be available until later.

### 2.2.6.2 A relative pronoun is often omitted when the object of an adjective clause.

EG a. The family (to whom) you gave the furniture are friends of mine.

b. The company (which) I had contacted called me back yesterday.

### 2.2.6.3 Many pronouns may be omitted in successive phrases or clauses.

EG We went shopping, returned home, and went out for dinner.

[illegible]

## 3 ADJECTIVE

### 3.1 TYPES

3.1.1 DESCRIPTIVE assigns an attribute to its referent

3.1.1.1 COMMON calm, new, oval, swift, large/small

3.1.1.2 PROPER derived from proper noun

EG a. English, Alpine (< places) b. Marxist, Orwellian (< persons, called EPONYMOUS) [All retain initial capitals.]

CF mercurial, draconian, quixotic, titanic [common, originally proper; lower case]

3.1.1.3 PLACE AND TIME

3.1.1.3.1 LOCATIVE relative position, spatial or figurative (present, absent, close, distant, proximate, remote)

3.1.1.3.2 TEMPORAL relative order, temporal or figurative (early, late, present, recent, imminent, former, latter)

NB The use of 'late' to mean “recently deceased” is idiomatic.

3.1.1.4 DEFINITE specifies its referent (particular, same, each, both, certain)

EG *Certain* models are no longer available. [DEFINITE]

CF I am quite *certain* that is the model I want. [DESCRIPTIVE]

3.1.2.5 INDEFINITE referent is non-specific [(an)other, any, either, some]

3.1.2.6 QUALITATIVE assigns a characteristic (good/bad, appropriate, careless)

3.1.2.7 QUANTITATIVE indicates relative quantity (many/few, enough, most, much, little, several, all)

EG Only a *little* time is left before *all* books must be returned to the library. [QUANTITATIVE]

CF That *little* book over there on the second shelf is well worth reading. [COMMON]

3.1.2.7.1 NUMERICAL indicates exactly how many

3.1.2.7.1.1 CARDINAL indicates absolute quantity (one, two, three...)

3.1.2.7.1.2 ORDINAL indicates relative order (first, second, third...)

3.1.2.7.2 NEGATIVE indicates absence of (*no* word yet, neither)

NB The redundant use of “no” rather than “any” with a negative verb (DOUBLE NEGATIVE), although not without historical foundation, is proscribed.

EG We don't have *no* tomatoes.

3.1.2.8 DISTRIBUTIVE indicates part of a whole (each, every, entire)

EG Most days I read the *entire* newspaper.

NB The adverbial use of 'most' in place of 'almost' (*most* every day) is proscribed.

3.1.2.9 DEMONSTRATIVE indicate relative distance from speaker (literal or figurative) [this/these (near); that/those (far)]

EG a. *That* orange should be ripe tomorrow. b. *Those* notions are trite and obsolete.

3.1.2.9.1 ARTICLES indicate specificity of reference

3.1.2.9.1.1 DEFINITE the (specified)

3.1.2.9.1.2 INDEFINITE a(n) [not specified]

NB a. The 'n' is euphonic, and is inserted before an initial vowel to avoid the glottal stop; it is also inserted before an unaspirated (silent) 'h' (an hour).

Into the mid-20th Century, literary (esp. British) usage preferred 'an' before an aspirated 'h' as well (EG an hand); this practice is now almost obsolete.

3.1.2.10 POSSESSIVE adjectives are derived from personal pronouns (my, your, his/her/its *sg.* their *pl.*)

NB Possessive adjectives are sometimes confused with the possessive forms of person pronouns. (mine, yours, his/her/its, theirs)



3.1.2.10.1 The 2nd person *sg* 'thy' is archaic.

3.1.2.11 REFLEXIVE 'own' is used with a possessive adjective to refer back to the subject

EG I would like to find my *own* copy.

NB 'own' can also be used intensively (EG This is our new house, our *own* home.)

3.1.2.12 INTERROGATIVE adjectives modify a substantive in questions (which, what)

EG a. *Which* dress did she buy? b. *What* color is it?

3.1.2.12.1 INTENSIVE INTERROGATIVE (whichever, whatever)

EG a. *Whichever* books there are available? b. *Whatever* books should I read first?

3.1.2.13 RELATIVE the adjective is definite rather than interrogative (which)

EG I have read the one volume, *which* book is doubtless mentioned in other histories.

3.1.2.13.1 INDEFINITE RELATIVE adjectives do not specify their referent (which, what, whichever, whatever)

EG I'm not sure *which* book you mean, among *whatever* books you've mentioned.

## 3.2 PROPERTIES

3.2.1 DEGREE indicates relative extent to which a substantive shares an attribute with other members of its class

3.2.1.1 POSITIVE referent possesses an attribute without reference to other members of its class

3.2.1.2 COMPARATIVE degree to which referent possesses an attribute relative to other members of a stipulated group

3.2.1.2.1 COORDINATIVE the subject possesses an attribute to an equal extent with its object

(...as, as...as) The object of comparison is in the subjective case. (EG cold *as* ice; *as* strong *as* iron)

3.2.1.2.2 SUBORDINATIVE the subject possesses attribute to an unequal extent with its object

3.2.1.2.2.1 COMPARATIVE greater or lesser extent than its object

3.2.1.2.2.1.1 POSITIVE COMPARATIVE Most adjectives use suffix '-er' (*easier*); some use adverb 'more' (*more* difficult).

3.2.1.2.2.1.2 NEGATIVE COMPARATIVE Most adjectives use adverb 'less' (*less* simple).

3.2.1.3 SUPERLATIVE greatest or least extent of all the members of a stipulated group

3.2.1.3.1 POSITIVE SUPERLATIVE most adjectives use suffix '-est' (*largest*); some use adverb 'most' (*most* minute)

3.2.1.3.2 NEGATIVE SUPERLATIVE most adjectives use adverb 'least' (*least* significant)

3.2.1.4 The comparison of certain adjectives is irregular. (good/better/best, bad/worse/worst)

CF ABSOLUTE rather than RELATIVE comparison (POSITIVE too... to, for *etc*; NEGATIVE not...enough for, to *etc*)

EG (Is it) Hot enough for you? [idiom; 'weather' is implied referent] VS *not* cold enough to snow

3.2.2 POSITION syntactic position of an adjective in relation to its referent

3.2.2.1 ATTRIBUTIVE Most adjectives directly precede the noun (not pronoun) they modify. [the *bright* sun, *every* day]

3.2.2.2 POSTPOSITIVE Certain adjectives directly follow their referent. (else, *galore*) [opposite PREPOSITIVE]

3.2.2.2.1 Certain usages are idiomatic. (accounts *payable*, proof *positive*)

3.2.2.2.2 An otherwise prepositive adjective modifying an indefinite or negative pronoun is postpositive.  
(something *strange*, nothing *new*)

3.2.2.2.3 The INDEFINITE RELATIVE ADJECTIVES 'whosoever', 'whoever', 'whatsoever' and 'whatever' when modifying a noun which follows the indefinite adjective 'any' or the negative adjective 'no,' or a negative pronoun, are postpositive. (any visitor *whosoever*, no exceptions *whatsoever*)

3.2.2.2.4 An ATTRIBUTIVE adjective placed in postpositive position usually becomes definite. (a pot *full* of gold, members *past* and *present*)

3.2.2.3 DISJUNCTIVE A usually prepositive adjective, separated by comma(s) for emphasis, may precede or follow the noun it modifies.

EG a. *Ready* and *waiting*, we went to meet the anticipated guest.  
b. Our dinner, equally *familiar* and *welcome*, awaited us all.

3.2.2.4 PREDICATE...A predicate adjective, otherwise prepositive, by definition follows its referent.

3.2.2.4.1 LINKING VERB subject is the referent (EG Skies are *clear*; and the weather stays *dry*.)

3.2.2.4.1.1 A PREDICATE ADJECTIVE and the subject may be inverted for emphasis.

EG *Silent* was the night, yet the waves on the beach remained *restless*.

3.2.2.4.2 TRANSITIVE VERB direct object is the referent (EG They bought the car *used*; some call it *useless*.)

3.2.2.4.3 DANGLING MODIFIER when the referent of a modifier (word or group of words) is unclear due to the position of the former in relation to the latter. [proscribed]

EG that house on the corner with the broken window

The position of the prepositional phrase suggests that it modifies 'corner.'

3.2.2.4.3.1 DANGLING PARTICIPLE (often as object of comparison) [EG Silent movies are older than talking.]  
The object of comparison, 'talking,' appears to be a gerund rather than a present participle modifying 'movies.'

### 3.3 OTHER USES

#### 3.3.1 NOUN

3.3.1.1 Many adjectives may be converted to a noun by the addition of certain suffixes. [ -ness (happiness), -ity (legality)]

3.3.1.2 Cardinal numbers and colors are also abstract nouns.

EG a. *Ten* is my lucky number. b. *Green* is my favorite color.

#### 3.3.2 PRONOUN

3.3.2.1 Certain adjectives referring to members of a group may act as relative pronouns. (take both, tell all)

3.3.2.2 An adjective may be used substantively in place of its referent.

EG Do you like the plain or decorated wallpaper? I prefer the *plain*.

3.3.2.3 The reflexive adjective 'own' may also be used substantively as a pronoun.

EG James borrowed the book; he would also prefer to have his *own*.

3.3.2.3.1 As a pronoun, 'own' may be used in a partitive sense.

EG Susan would also like a copy of her *own*.

3.3.2.4 The interrogative pronoun "which" is a substantive use of the interrogative adjective.

EG *Which* of the set of books do they want?

#### 3.3.3 ADVERB

3.3.3.1 Many descriptive adjectives may be converted into an adverb of manner by the suffix -ly. (quickly, mainly)

3.3.3.1.1 At least one descriptive adjective uses the proclitic 'be-' to become an adverb. (below)

3.3.3.2 Certain adjectives are also adverbs (only, daily, more)

EG You can *only* buy this jacket now, if you're sure you want it *more* than new shoes.

### 3.4 WHEN OMITTED

3.4.1 An adjective may have a compound referent. (EG All *overdue* books and magazines must be returned by Friday.)

## 4 VERB

### 4.1 TYPES (some verbs may function as more than one type)

4.1.1 TRANSITIVE expresses an action of the subject upon an object, whether direct or indirect (build, give, repair)

EG Her mother *gave* Bridget that book for her birthday.

4.1.2 INTRANSITIVE expresses a state of being or activity which does not take an object (endure, walk, wait)

EG Robert *smiled* when he saw her at school the next morning.

4.1.2.1 LINKING refers a predicate adjective or noun to the subject (seem become, appear, feel)

EG Children *grow* more independent as they *become* adults.

4.1.2.2 COPULA 'be' expresses existence itself, and so constitutes a separate class among intransitive verbs.

EG Some things *are* now that *were* not, and other things *will be* that *are* not now.

4.1.2.3 Some verbs may be transitive, intransitive or linking

EG a. Leonard and Molly *grow* flowers as a hobby. [TRANSITIVE]  
b. These tulips will *grow* quickly. [INTRANSITIVE]  
c. The lilacs *have grown* very tall. [LINKING]

4.1.2.3.1 Certain intransitive verbs with a preposition become transitive. (smile at, wait for)

4.1.2.4 AUXILIARY have merely grammatical functions, and are used to form certain tenses, voices or aspects (be, do, have, will, shall).

EG *Has* Bridget finished her new book yet? No, she *is* reading it now.

4.1.2.4.1 Some auxiliaries are also transitive (do, have, will)

EG a. It *is* apparent that a project *has been* underway. [AUXILIARY]  
b. A person who *has done* [TRANSITIVE] a job well *has* good reason to be proud. [TRANSITIVE]  
c. Do [TRANSITIVE] as you will. [TRANSITIVE, direct object not specified]

4.1.2.4.1.1 'have' may also be used in a commissive sense of obligation or intention

EG a. This report *has* to be completed by Thursday. [obligation, present active indicative]  
b. Management *will have* it done before then. [intention, future active indicative]  
c. The staff will be certain *to have* it *done*.  
[intention, present active infinitive; may also be present perfect (= 'to have completed')]

CF idiomatic usage 'I'll have you know...' ['to' is omitted from the infinitive]

4.1.2.4.1.1.2 The idiomatic conditional 'had better' expresses obligation.

EG a. They *had better* complete the report on time.)  
and b. 'had best' preferential option (EG They *had best* get started to finish the report.)

NB in both cases, 'to' is omitted from the infinitive.

4.1.2.4.1.2 Transitive 'will' [definite or conditional aspect] has various nuances, mostly regarding intention or probability.

4.1.2.4.1.2.1 Progressive 'be willing' followed by infinitive, means 'agreeable to' under a given circumstance

EG a. He is willing to attend tomorrow.. b. She would be willing to attend next week.

NB The infinitive is the direct object of 'willing.'

4.1.2.4.2 MODAL AUXILIARIES indicated the senses in which a verb expresses action or occurrence  
(can, may, must, shall, will)

EG a. Michael or Alice *can* easily suggest a good computer. [CF *Can* I still buy last year's model?]  
b. Sample keyboards *may* still be on display; you *must* try some.

4.1.2.4.3 The use of 'dare' as a modal auxiliary is archaic (EG Sir William *dared* not fight the dragon.)

4.1.2.4.3.1 'dare' now usually takes an infinitive as direct object (EG However, he *dared* to visit the castle.)

4.1.2.4.4 The verb 'go' [intransitive, = "move"] is quite versatile, and resembles at times an auxiliary.

4.1.2.4.4.1 The simple form with an infinitive expresses intention.

- EG a. He *goes* to buy new polish for the furniture. [PRESENT]  
b. He *has gone* to buy some furniture polish. [PRESENT PERFECT]  
c. He *went* to buy some more furniture polish. [SIMPLE PAST]

NB The past tense 'went' is actually borrowed from the archaic verb 'wend' (= 'wander' or 'saunter').

CF present 'is/are' VS past 'was/were'; the obsolete past of 'go' is 'gaed' (CF Scots present 'gae')]

4.1.2.4.4.2 The progressive form expresses *anticipated* action

- EG a. He *is going* to buy different furniture polish.  
b. He *was going* to buy some furniture polish.

4.1.2.4.4.2.1 This form is also used in the future infinitive ('to be going to say')

4.1.2.4.4.3 'to' is omitted from the infinitive in certain contexts

- EG a. They suggested he go buy furniture polish. [PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE in JUSSIVE clause]  
b. They said: "Go buy new furniture polish." [PRESENT IMPERATIVE]

4.1.2.4.4.3.1 In colloquial use, 'go and' may be used instead of 'go (to)'

- .EG a. Why won't you *go and* buy some furniture polish?  
b. I promise that I will *go and* get some right away.  
c. They *went and* dusted the furniture without any.

4.1.2.4.4.4 'go' may be used in a similar sense a gerund rather than infinitive [both are verbal nouns]

- EG a. We usually *go skating* in the winter if there is enough ice.  
b. The cat *went running* up the street when the dog barked.

4.1.2.4.4.4.1 Rural American dialect can use the present perfect tense of 'go' with a gerund past tense

EG He has (is) gone (having) left the tools in the shed. (CF '(has) done...') [both proscribed]

4.1.2.4.4.4.2 That this usage employs a gerund rather than a present participle is evident with a transitive verb [*get* going, *keep* (on) moving, *stop* talking]

4.1.2.4.5 Although its secondary uses are colloquial and regarded as poor usage, those uses of the verb 'get' (transitive, = 'obtain') are analogous to 'go.'

4.1.2.4.5.1 An infinitive as the direct object of 'get' expresses permission or opportunity.

- EG a. We *get to* leave early if the following class arrives before noon.  
b. It stopped raining, so they *got to* leave yesterday.

NB .get permission, leave' *etc* is idiomatic

4.1.2.4.5.2 past tense "got" can also express present obligation or necessity [colloquial, proscribed]

- EG a. I *got to* finish my homework before nine o'clock.  
b. You *got to* sand the wood before you can paint it.

CF 'you got to admit' [colloquial, proscribed] VS 'you have to admit' [idiom]

4.1.2.4.5.2.1 American dialect sometimes adds 3rd person *sg* '-s' (EG He *gots to* sand the wood before he paints it.)

4.1.2.4.5.2.1.1 Dialects, to suggest a detached sense, may also add -s to the present 1st and 2nd *sg* of any verb

EG "I eats me (= 'my') spinach." [< Popeye the Sailor Man]

4.1.2.4.5.3 The past tense of 'go' can also mean present 'have' or 'possess' (EG we only *got a* dozen donuts left.)

4.1.2.4.5.4 intransitive use of 'get' = 'become'

- EG a. The days *get* shorter as autumn approaches. b. The bread *will get* stale if not eaten soon.

## 4.2 PROPERTIES

4.2.1. THREE PRINCIPLE PARTS All forms of a verb are derived from its *three principle parts*:

4.2.1.1 SIMPLE FORM unmoderated by person, number, voice, tense, aspect or mood (help, invite, be)

- 4.2.1.2 PAST TENSE Most verbs (traditionally called WEAK) add the suffix -ed to the simple form (trusted, lived)
- 4.2.1.2.1 the 'e' in -ed is elided after all sounds except 'd' and 't' [CF 'famed' VS 'faded']
- 4.2.1.2.1.1 final 'd' after a voiceless consonant, other than d or t, is pronounced 't' [leaped, also spelled 'leapt']
- 4.2.1.2.1.2 Well into the Modern Period (after 1500), about parallel with the use of its cousin suffix '-eth,' the 'e' in '-ed' was pronounced in all contexts. Its gradual omission was indicated by an APOSTROPHE [''] (forc'd), and its retention is by a GRAVE accent [-èd]. The latter usage is now found only in certain past participles when used as an adjective (agèd, belovèd)
- 4.2.1.2.2 Some verbs (traditionally called STRONG) form the past tense by a change of internal vowel; this characteristic is called *ablaut* [< German, pron. 'ahb-lout']. (sing/sang, fight/fought)
- 4.2.1.3 PAST PARTICIPLE
- 4.2.1.3.1 In weak verbs, has the same form as the past tense (live/lived/lived)
- 4.2.1.3.2 In strong verbs, a past participle using *ablaut* may or may not have the same form as the past tense. (think/thought/thought VS begin/began/begun)
- 4.2.1.3.3 Some past participles use the suffix -en .(broken, frozen, been, seen) [archaic, < Anglo-Saxon]
- 4.2.1.3.4 Some verbs have the same form in all three principle parts. (cut/cut/cut, set/set/set)
- 4.2.2 PERSON 1st, 2nd, 3rd [RF §2.2.1]
- 4.2.3 NUMBER *sg / pl* [RF §1.2.2]
- 4.2.3.1 In the present indicative, most verbs show number only in the 3rd person *sg* by the suffix -(e)s (doubts, proves, teaches)
- 4.2.3.1.1 Archaic 2nd person *sg* ending (-est) is more specific. (thinkest, givest)
- 4.2.3.1.1.1 -(e)st is also used in the past tense (walkèdst, saidst, sangest)
- 4.2.3.1.2 Archaic 3rd person *sg*. ending is -eth rather than -(e)s. (seemeth, maketh)
- 4.2.3.1.2.1 -eth is also used in the past tense of certain strong verbs ((cameth, madeth)
- 4.2.3.1.3 These archaic endings can also be used with auxiliary verbs.
- 4.2.3.1.3.1 be: *present sg* am/art/is; *pl* are; *past sg* was/wast (*subj.* wert)/was, *pl* were
- 4.2.3.1.3.2 can: *present sg*. can/canst/can, *pl.* can; *past sg*. could/couldst/could, *pl.* could
- 4.2.3.1.3.3 do: *present sg* do/dost/doth, *pl* do; *past sg* did/didst/did, *pl* did
- 4.2.3.1.3.4 have: *present sg* have/hast/hath, *pl* have; *past s.* had/hadst/had, *pl* had
- 4.2.3.1.3.5 shall: *present sg* shall/shalt/shall, *pl.* shall; *past sg.* should/shouldst/should, *pl* should
- 4.2.3.1.3.6 will: *present sg* will/wilt/will, *pl* shall; *past sg* would/wouldst/would, *pl* would
- 4.2.4 VOICE indicates the relation of the subject to the verb
- 4.2.4.1 ACTIVE subject "performs" the action of a verb (EG Sir William *slew* the dragon.)
- 4.2.4.1.1 Intransitive verbs always use the active voice. (EG He waited until the dragon *had fallen* asleep.)
- 4.2.4.2 REFLEXIVE subject "acts" upon itself; transitive verb takes a reflexive pronoun as its object
- EG a. Sir William nearly *injured himself* while slaying the dragon. [subject is direct object of verb]  
b. I *have given myself* four hours to finish the project. [subject is indirect object of verb]
- 4.2.4.3 PASSIVE subject receives the action of a transitive verb; shown by the auxiliary 'be' and the past participle
- EG a. The repairs *are not finished* yet; the wall *will be done* by Friday. [subject is direct object]  
b. I *was granted* an extension of the deadline. [subject is indirect object]

4.2.5 TENSE indicates the time at which an action or event occurs relative to the present  
English has six tenses, which are divided into two analogous tense systems of three each.

4.2.5.1 PRESENT (also called IMPERFECT) tense system relates to the same point in time as the linguistic act

4.2.5.1.1 PRESENT simultaneous with the linguistic act (spoken or written)

EG The rain *is continuing* as we *wait for* the sun to appear.

4.2.5.1.2 PAST action occurred before the present (EG The rain *stopped* early yesterday just before the sun *returned*.)

4.2.5.1.2.1 PAST FORMS OF AUXILIARIES

be/was, were	do/did	(mote)/must
can/could	have/had	shall/should
dare/(durst)	may/might	will/would

4.2.5.1.2.1.1 'durst' (past tense = 'dared,' and 'mote' (= 'may') are archaic; 'must,' expressing necessity or obligation, is used for both present and past. CF 'should']

4.2.5.2.1.2 The verb 'used' with an infinitive direct object indicates habitual action in the past.

NB My family *used to eat* out more often than we do now.

4.2.5.2.1.2.1 Archaic usage permitted present 'use' to indicate current habit (= "usually"); usages became confined to the past tense through *elision* (phonetic merger) of final -d with initial t-, thus confusing the tenses.

EG We *use* to have dinner at noon o'clock.

NB The use of 'dinner' for the mid-day meal is also archaic;  
( 'supper' was the smaller, evening meal), as is 'o'clock' following 'noon.'

4.2.5.1.3 FUTURE action will occur at some point after the present; formed with the auxiliary 'will' and the simple form of the verb (EG A contractor *will build* the house next year.)

4.2.5.1.3.1 In conventional usage, the auxiliary 'shall' is preferred in the first person.

EG a. I *shall paint* the house myself. b. We *shall move in* soon afterwards.

4.2.5.1.3.2 'will' in the first person (*volitive*) expresses determination

EG As agreed, I *will paint* the house before the end of next year.

4.2.5.1.3.3 'will' may be used with the same effect in the second and third persons

EG a. You *will sell* the subscriptions, as we agreed. b. They *will do* as they are instructed.

4.2.5.1.3.4 'will' in the third person may also express likelihood or certainty

EG It is noon; that *will be* the postal carrier at the door.

4.2.5.1.3.5 'shall' in any person may express the future in a more formal sense

EG The ceremony planned for next week *shall be cancelled* if it rains.

4.2.5.1.3.6 'shall' may also express future necessity or obligation (mainly legal usage)

EG Whoever breaks this law *shall pay* a fine of ten dollars.

4.2.5.1.3.7 'should' often expresses necessity or obligation in either a hypothetical or absolute sense

EG a. Participants *should* arrive an hour before the ceremony is scheduled to begin.  
b. We really *should* get tickets first.

4.2.5.2 PERFECT TENSE SYSTEM relates events completed with reference to the present

4.2.5.2.1 PRESENT PERFECT action completed before the present; formed by the present tense of 'have' and a past participle  
EG The contractor *has finished* the house on schedule.

4.2.5.2.1.1 The auxiliary 'be' may be used in the perfect tenses of some intransitive verbs. [archaic]

EG He *is gone* to a distant land.

4.2.5.2.2 PAST PERFECT action completed before some point in the past; formed by past tense of 'have' and a past participle

EG They *had finished* painting the exterior before the interior was completed.

4.2.5.2.3 FUTURE PERFECT action completed before some point in the future; formed by future tense of 'have' and a past participle

EG Alice *will have planted* a garden before spring is over.

4.2.5.3 SEQUENCE OF TENSES in proper usage, precise use of the six tenses in relating a series of events

EG a. When the store opened, we went shopping [suggests the events were simultaneous]

CF b. When the store had opened, we went shopping. [clarifies that the second event is subsequent to the first]

4.2.6 . ASPECT indicates the manner in which an action or event occurs

4.2.6.1 DEFINITE states occurrence of event at a given time (EG Helen *reads* a book.)

4.2.6.2 PROGRESSIVE indicates an ongoing or incomplete action or event; formed by the auxiliary 'be' and the present participle

EG As I mentioned, Helen *is reading* a book.

4.2.6.3 INTENSIVE action or event is emphasized; formed by the auxiliary 'do' and the simple form of a verb

EG PRESENT Yes, Helen *does read* quickly.

4.2.6.3.1 The intensive aspect is used only in the present and past tenses. All other archaic and surviving dialectic uses are proscribed.

EG PAST Her sister *did return* that book to the library.

4.2.6.3.2 The rural American dialectic use of 'done' as an auxiliary

EG a. I *done watched* that steer escape from the pasture.

is actually an archaic remnant of the once respectable British use of 'do' in the present perfect.

b. Reginald *hath done caught* five trout, although he so seldom go fishing.

The form 'go' in the concessional clause is deliberate, as the latter can be construed as a condition for the main clause, which would justify the now archaic (as well) use of the subjunctive..

4.2.6.3.2.1 The British idiom "Might have done" (= 'Possibly') is also a remnant of this usage.

4.2.6.3.2.2 This usage includes use of auxiliary 'do' in the pluperfect and future perfect tenses.

a. Reginald *had done departed* before Stanley arrived. [PAST PERFECT]

b. Stanley *will have done* caught more trout before he leave(s). [FUTURE PERFECT]

4.2.6.3.2.3 The adverb 'so' may also be used to intensify verbs expressing wish or intention.

EG a. I *so* want to relax this weekend. b. She had *so* meant to tell them earlier.

4.2.7 MOOD indicates the sense in which an action or event is intended

4.2.7.1 INDICATIVE statement of fact, the action or event really occurs

EG The clouds *are gathering*. It *is going to rain*. It *rained* yesterday.

4.2.7.2 IMPERATIVE direct order or command; usually 2nd person, present tense

4.2.7.1 2nd person uses the simple form of the verb (EG Robert, *close* the door.)

4.2.7.2 The 1st and 3rd persons use 'let' with an infinitive clause as direct object.

EG a. *Let's see* a movie tonight! ['to' is omitted from the infinitive] b. *Let* Michael *do* it; I'm busy.

4.2.7.2.1 'may,' inverted with the subject, can be used to similar effect, but with less intensity

EG a. *May* we never *forget* this day. b. *May* this *be done* soon and successfully.

4.2.7.3 SUBJUNCTIVE shows contrary-to-fact conditions

4.2.7.3.1 The present subjunctive uses the simple form of the verb.

4.2.7.3.2 The past subjunctive has the same form as the *pl* past tense of the verb (when this differs from the *sg*).

4.2.7.3.3 In Modern English, the subjunctive is required only in JUSSIVE clauses (expressing command or suggestion)

EG Diane's teacher recommends that she *read* this book.

4.2.7.3.4 VOLITIVE The subjunctive in an independent clause expresses wish or intention.

EG Long *live* the king! May he reign many years!

4.2.7.4 CONDITIONAL The past tense is often used to express a hypothetical circumstance.

4.2.7.4.1 A *conditional* clause predicates a hypothetical event.

4.2.7.4.1.1 in a more immediate context, uses the present tense

EG If the stove *catches* fire, of course I will look for water.

4.2.7.4.1.2 in a less probable context, uses the past tense (EG If the stove *caught* fire, I would look for water quickly.

4.2.7.4.1.2.1 The subject and verb in the above usage may be inverted, and 'if' omitted.

EG *Had* I water, I could use the stove.

4.2.7.4.1.3 The use of the subjunctive in conditional clauses is somewhat archaic.

4.2.7.4.1.3.1 PRESENT "If this *be* treason, let us make the most of it." [< Patrick Henry, 1765]

4.2.7.4.1.3.2 PAST If the stove *caught* fire, I *would look for* water quickly.

'caught' has the same form as past subjunctive, although unlikely in this instance; the construction 'if the stove were to catch fire' would be more probable. The past subjunctive 'were' is archaic.

EG if the cake *were done* VS if the cake *was done*

CF If I *were* you' is idiomatic, implies respectful distance

VS 'if I *was* you,' is less polite, and questionable usage

4.2.7.4.1.3.2.1 The past tense of auxiliaries can also be used in conditional clauses.

EG a. If it *would only stop* raining, then we could leave.

b. If I *could find* the map, we would arrive sooner.

4.2.7.4.1.3.2.2 A RESULT clause indicates the consequence of a hypothetical event, and uses an auxiliary verb

4.2.7.4.1.3.2.2.1 In a more immediate context, uses the present tense of the auxiliary.

EG If the stove catches fire, of course I *will look for* water.

4.2.7.4.1.3.2.2.2 In a less probable context, uses the past tense of the auxiliary.

EG a. If the stove catches fire, I *might have* to use a damp towel to put it out.

b. If the stove caught fire, I *would look for* water quickly.

c. If the stove catches fire, I would look for water quickly, if I were you.

The second conditional clause, 'if I were you,' is adverbial.

d. If I had water, I *could douse* the fire on stove.

4.2.7.4.1.3.2.2.3 Certain past tenses of 'be' may be used with impersonal 'it' in a result clause.

EG a. If you don't have water available, it *would be* better not to use the stove.

b. If you're going to use the stove, it *were* better to have water available. [subjunctive, archaic]

c. This result clause can also be used in a declarative sentence

EG It *were* better to have water ready before using the stove.

4.2.7.4.1.3.2.3 Conditional and result clauses may be inverted (EG I would use the stove, if I had some water ready.)

### 4.3 OTHER USES

4.3.1 Infinite forms of a verb function as a noun or an adjective.

4.3.1.1 VERBAL NOUN may take an object or predicate

4.3.1.1.1 INFINITIVE The simple form of the verb, usually, not always, the object of the preposition 'to;' it can take an object and is modified by an adverb.



#### 4.3.1.1.1.1 Infinitives have the property of CASE

##### 4.3.1.1.1.1.1 SUBJECT

EG “*To err* is human, *to forgive* divine.” [< Alexander Pope: *An Essay on Criticism*, 525]

a. 'err' is pronounced 'urr,' not 'ere'

b. RF Classical Latin *Errāre est humānum* [< Lucius Annaeus Seneca]

##### 4.3.1.1.1.1.2 DIRECT OBJECT with certain transitive verbs

EG a. The prosecutor wants *to convince* the jury. b. The defense tries *to create* doubt.

c. Audrey's mother taught her *to play* the piano.

'Audrey' is an indirect object, and 'to play' the direct object.

NB This construction is sometimes identified as an infinitive clause; it is not.

##### 4.3.1.1.1.1.2.1 With 'help', the 'to' may or may not be omitted. (EG Please help me (to) find the book.)

##### 4.3.1.1.1.1.3 OBJECT OF PREPOSITION

EG “I'm going to Louisiana, My true love *for* to see” [< Stephen Foster: *Oh! Susanna*, 1848]

['for' preceding an infinitive expressing purpose is archaic]

##### 4.3.1.1.1.1.4 The infinitive may change *voice*, *tense* or *aspect* by the use of auxiliaries.

##### 4.3.1.1.1.1.4.1 PRESENT ACTIVE to see vs PASSIVE to be seen; PROGRESSIVE ACTIVE to be seeing

##### 4.3.1.1.1.1.4.2 PAST ACTIVE to have seen vs PASSIVE to have been seen; PAST PROGRESSIVE ACTIVE to have been seeing

##### 4.3.1.1.1.1.4.3 FUTURE ACTIVE to be going to see vs PASSIVE to be going to be seen [both are seldom used]

##### 4.3.1.1.1.1.3 An infinitive may also act as several other parts of speech.

##### 4.3.1.1.1.1.3.1 POSTPOSITIVE ADJECTIVE

a. The [DEFINITE], a [DESCRIPTIVE] person *to do* the job is Susan. [referent is SUBJECT of infinitive]

b. The [DEFINITE], a [DESCRIPTIVE] city *to visit* is Paris. [referent is DIRECT OBJECT of infinitive]

c. The [DEFINITE], a [DESCRIPTIVE] man *to ask* is Nathan.. [referent is INDIRECT OBJECT of infinitive]

##### 4.3.1.1.1.1.3.2 ADVERB EG a. We need a hose *to wash* the car. [PURPOSE]

b. The car does need washing, *to say* the least [ABSOLUTE (idiom)]

##### 4.3.1.1.2 GERUND has the same form as a present or present perfect participle, of which it may be considered a substantive use

##### 4.3.1.1.2.1 CASE EG a. *Seeing* is *believing*. [SUBJECT and Predicate Nominative]

b. I prefer *knowing* the truth. [DIRECT OBJECT]

c. A hammer is a tool for *driving* nails. [OBJECT OF PREPOSITION]

d. The cost of *failing* is often more than that of *succeeding* [POSSESSIVE]

##### 4.3.1.1.2.2 A gerund retains the capacity of a verb to take objects, but can be modified by either an adverb or adjective.

##### 4.3.1.1.2.2. EG a. *Buying* our children [INDIRECT OBJECT] school supplies [DIRECT OBJECT] is an annual necessity.

b. *Moving* slowly [ADVERB] is often necessary to avoid an accident.

CF Quick [ADJECTIVE] *thinking* is often necessary to make a good decision.

##### 4.3.1.1.3 AGENT The unspecified subject of a verb may be represented by addition of the suffixes *m* -er or *f* -(e)ress to the simple form of that verb. (waiter/waitress)

##### 4.3.1.1.3.1 In most words of Latin origin, the suffixes *m* -or. *f* -rix are applied to the stem of a PERFECT, PASSIVE PARTICIPLE. [victor (= 'winner' /victrix; CF, however, actor/actress].

##### 4.3.1.1.3.2 distinction of gender in such agentive nouns can be avoided by ageneric use of -er / -or

##### 4.3.1.2 PARTICIPLE a descriptive verbal adjective, and has the properties of *tense* and *voice*; it is modified by an adverb

##### 4.3.1.2.1 PRESENT PARTICIPLE is formed by adding the suffix -ing to the simple form of a verb (adding) or its auxiliary

##### 4.3.1.2.1.1 a. POSTPOSITIVE ACTIVE the student *reading* a book b. PASSIVE the book *being read*

4.3.1.2.1.2 a. DISJUNCTIVE ACTIVE the student,, still *reading* the book b. PASSIVE still *being read*, the book

4.3.1.2.2 PRESENT PERFECT ACTIVE PARTICIPLE is formed by adding the suffix -ing to the auxiliary 'have'

4.3.1.2.2.1 a. POSTPOSITIVE ACTIVE the accountant *having finished* the books

b. POSTPOSITIVE PASSIVE    the books *having just been published*

4.3.1.2.2.2 a. DISJUNCTIVE ACTIVE the hostages, *having attempted* their escape

b. DISJUNCTIVE PASSIVE    their ransom, *having been paid*

NB Although the present and present perfect participles always follow their referent, in the postpositive position they are definite in nature, but nearly always introduce an absolute adverbial phrase. When disjunctive, they are attributive in nature, just as disjunctive adjectives also retain that characteristic.

#### 4.3.1.2.3 PAST PARTICIPLE is the third principle part of a verb, and is passive in voice

#### 4.3.1.2.3,1 TYPES

4.3.1.2.3,1.1 WEAK add -ed (added, subtracted, included, omitted)

#### 4.3.1.2.3.1.2 STRONG irregular (spoken, thought, sunk, run)

#### 4.3.1.2.3,2 POSITION

4.3.1.2.3,2.1 ATTRIBUTIVE (repressed memory, done deal (idiom))

4.3.1.2.3,2.2 POSTPOSITIVE (evidence not yet disclosed, history long forgotten)

4.3.1.2.3,2.3 DISJUNCTIVE (the story, never before told; seldom mentioned, the fact)

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## 5 ADVERB

### 5.1 TYPES

#### 5.1.1 SIMPLE most often describes

##### 5.1.1.1 MANNER how (slowly, carefully, fast)

5.1.1.1.1 Many adjectives, most having to do with manner, can be changed to adverbs by addition of the suffix *-ly*. (quickly, carelessly)

5.1.1.1.2 Some adverbs are different from the adjective equivalents. (well/good)

CF You did *good*. [= 'well,' INCORRECT] VS You did *good*. [= substantive adjective, CORRECT])

5.1.1.1.3 Other adverbs are identical with their adjective equivalents. (fast/fast)

##### 5.1.1.2 DEGREE or EXTENT how much (quite, least, almost, most, much, very, so, somewhat, hardly, nearly)

5.1.2.1 'that' refers to a specified or unspecified degree or extent

EG a. That city is two miles from here; is the highway exit *that* far away? [represents 'two miles']]

b. This board is six feet; I don't have another board *that* long. [represents 'six feet;' 'long' is an adjective]

c. The task is not *that* hard; it shouldn't take all *that* long. [modifies 'hard' (adjective), and 'long,' here an adverb]

NB In examples a and b respectively,, 'miles' and 'feet' are both nouns acting as predicate adjectives; represented by 'that,' they both become adverbs, the first modifying 'far,' and the second, 'long.'

##### 5.1.1.3 PROBABILITY likelihood (probably, likely, possibly, surely)

##### 5.1.1.4 TIME when (soon, later, yesterday, now, yet),

##### 5.1.1.4.1 FREQUENCY how often (often, seldom, regularly, constantly, rarely)

##### 5.1.1.4.1.1 NUMERICAL how many times [once, twice thrice (archaic)]

##### 5.1.1.4.1.2 DURATION how long (forever, long, still, yet)

##### 5.1.1.5 PLACE where (nearby, everywhere, upstairs)

#### 5.1.2 INTERROGATIVE introduces a question (when, where, how, why)

5.1.2.1 An interrogative adverb is *intensified* by the enclitic *-ever*

EG a. *Wherever* have I left my keys?

b. *Whyever* would you do a thing like that?

c. *However* did he manage to find the map? [not to be confused with the ABSOLUTE use of 'however']

#### 5.1.3 DEMONSTRATIVE indicates relative distance from the speaker (here, hence (near) / there, thence (far)

5.1.3.1 'here' and 'there' are sometimes used in compounds (heretofore, hereafter, thereupon *etc*)

#### 5.1.4 ABSOLUTE modifies a clause or sentence (meanwhile, somehow, anyway, however)

EG a. Some guests, *however*, arrived late; *somehow* they found parking.

b. *Obviously*, such occasions require careful planning.

5.1.4.1 'thankfully' and 'hopefully' are colloquial, and are regarded as poor usage

EG a. *Thankfully*, everything else went well. b. *Hopefully*, things will go better next time.

#### 5.1.5 NEGATIVE negates possibility of any time (never), place (*nowhere* in the world) *etc*

5.1.5.1 'not' can negate a verb [with auxiliary 'do' (that did not happen)], adjective (not easy, not hard) or another adverb (not quite, not lately)

### 5.2 PROPERTIES

#### 5.2.1 DEGREE positive, comparative, superlative [RF §5.2.1]

### 5.3 OTHER USES

#### 5.3.1 NOUN

- 5.3.1.1 Simple or demonstrative adverbs may be substantive when the object of a preposition.  
(at least, since yesterday, until now; in here, from there)

#### 5.3.2 PRONOUN

- 5.3.2.1 RELATIVE ADVERB functions as a pronoun when it is the subject of an adjective clause  
(how, when, where, why, whence)

EG a. I have found the hotel *where* you made reservations;  
b. Please let me know the time *when* you plan to arrive.  
c. Leslie did not explain *how* they got there, or *why* they left early.

- 5.3.2.2 INDEFINITE RELATIVE ADVERB referent is unknown or unstated (when, where, how, why)

EG a. Michael will show us *where* the tools are kept, and *how* to use them.  
b. Leslie forgot *when* the lecture was scheduled, and *why* she wanted to attend.  
c. I don't know *when* or *where*. Nobody told me *how* or *why*.

- 5.3.2.2.1 An indefinite relative adverb may be *intensified* by the enclitic -(so)ever.

EG a. We can start *whenever* you're ready.  
b. *Whensoever* that is known to have occurred, it must be reported immediately.  
c. *Wherever* the newspaper is, we had better find it soon.  
'had' is conditional past expressing necessity, and the omission of 'to' from the infinitive after the adverb 'better' is idiomatic

- 5.3.2.3 INTERROGATIVE ADVERB refers to time, place, means *etc.*, and introduces a question  
(when, where, how, why, whence)

EG a. *When* and *where* did they argue? b. *Why* were they so upset? c. *How* did you find out?

- 5.3.2.3.1 The use of 'whenever' or 'wherever' as interrogative adverbs is *intensive*. (EG *Wherever* did you find the keys?)

#### 5.3.2.4 DEMONSTRATIVE ADVERB

- 5.3.2.4.1 The demonstrative adverb 'there' may be used as an impersonal subject

EG a. Is *there* a doctor in the house? b. *There* are not many people in the audience.

- 5.3.2.4.2 A demonstrative adverb may be the object of a preposition.

EG a. I wouldn't go near *there* if I were you. b. It's much safer in *here*.

#### 5.3.3 ADJECTIVE Certain adverbs are also adjectives.

- 5.3.3.1 Demonstrative adverbs 'here' and 'there' may modify certain nouns expressing activity.

EG a. Ellen's work *here* has been quite productive.  
b. The Morgans' arrival *there* was two hours later than scheduled.

Their status as an adverb or adjective in this context is ambiguous.

- 5.3.3.2 An indefinite relative adverb may be used in apposition to a noun.

EG a. Tell me the reason *why*. b. Then tell me the time *when* and the place *where* it happened.

- 5.3.3.3 The adverb 'quite' may modify a predicate noun with an article

5.3.3.3.1 INDEFINITE That's *quite an* elaborate story you tell.

5.3.3.3.2 DEFINITE (ironic) The author is *quite the* expert, isn't he?

#### 5.3.4 PREPOSITION Certain adverbs are also prepositions. (before, after, near)

EG The store is located *down* the street, *near* the corner.

### 5.3.5 CONJUNCTION

Various adverbs can be used as a conjunction.

EG a. We were all late, *hence* the meeting was postponed.

b. Few people attended the next meeting, *wherefore* it was cancelled. [formal or archaic]

c. Others thought that would happen, *so* they decided not to go.

d. Regular meetings are no longer scheduled, *yet* the organization survives.

### 5.3.6. INTERJECTION

5.3.6.1 The adverbs 'so,' well' *etc.*, followed by a punctuation mark, may be used as an interjection; their use is generally informal or colloquial

EG a. *So!* That is what happened! b. *So.* Things look different now.

c. *Well*, what did you expect?      d. *Now*, what should we do next?

5.3.6.1 The interrogative adverb 'why,' separated by a comma, may also be used as an interjection; its use is colloquial.

EG *Why*, that is the dumbest thing I ever heard.

## 5.4 WHEN OMITTED

#### 5.4.1 A RELATIVE ADVERB can often be omitted.

EG a. We left on the same day [when] the package arrived.

b. The package remained at the same place [where] it had been delivered..

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## 6. PREPOSITION

Although prepositions are single words and comprise a separate part of speech, most require a substantive object. [RF §9.1.6]

### 6.1 TYPES

6.1.1 SIMPLE a single word (about, by, in, of, over, under, with)

6.1.2 COMPOUND Compound prepositions may or may not include a conjunction (in between, next to, outside of, within; above and beyond, at or near, up and down)

6.1.2.1 Expressions such as 'due to' and 'in spite of' are not true compound prepositions.

6.1.3 Although not formally compound, numerous prepositions include -CLITICS.

6.1.3.1 PROCLITIC

6.1.3.1.1 a- (across, along, around, atop)

6.1.3.1.2 be- (below, beside, beneath)

6.1.3.2 ENCLITIC

6.1.3.2.1 -fore [before, afore (archaic)]

6.1.3.2.2 -neath (beneath, underneath)

6.1.3.2.3 -ward(s) [toward(s), afterward(s)]

[§§6.1.4, 5 and 6 following are prepositional phrases condensed into single words, and so are treated here rather than in §9. Their use tends to be formal or archaic.]

6.1.4 DEMONSTRATIVE appends a preposition to a substantive demonstrative adverb which is its object (herein, herewith,, thereto, therefrom)

6.1.5 RELATIVE appends a preposition to the substantive relative adverb 'where' in place of the relative pronoun 'which' is its object (whereby, whereon, wherewith)

6.1.6 INTERROGATIVE appends a preposition to the substantive relative adverb 'where' in place of the interrogative pronoun 'which' as its object (wherein, whereof, whereto)

### 6.2 OTHER USES

6.2.1 PRONOUN Relative and interrogative prepositions can both function as pronouns; both use the substantive relative adverb *where* in place of 'which.' [formal or archaic]

6.2.1.1 RELATIVE PREPOSITION introduces an adjective or adverbial clause (whereof, wherewith)

6.2.1.2 RELATIVE PRONOUN (EG The parchment *whereon* the manuscript is inscribed is fragile.

6.2.1.2.1 INDEFINITE RELATIVE PRONOUN (EG He is ignorant *whereof* he speaks.)

6.2.1.3 INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN *Wherefrom* did the difficulty arise at its outset?

6.2.2 ADJECTIVE Certain prepositions may also function as adjectives.

NB a. The awning *outside* needs to be repaired. b. The path *down* is usually easier than the way *up*.

6.2.3 ADVERB

6.2.3.1 Some prepositions are also adverbs (before, outside)

EG a. I've heard this *before*.

b. We went *inside* to escape the rain.

c. The ball bounced *up and down*.

NB They ran *to and fro*. ['m' in 'from' was originally euphonic (CF 'froward')]

EG a. *Herein* lies the problem, that whole sections are missing from the report.  
b. The parts missing *therefrom* will be restored promptly.

EG a. She is likely near or *hereabout*. [DEMONSTRATIVE ADVERB]  
b. The movie lasted two hours or *thereabouts*. [INDEFINITE RELATIVE ADVERB]

### 6.2.4 CONJUNCTION

EG a. Robert went home *after* the show was over. b. They wouldn't leave the house *until* Anne had called.

EG She mentioned the meeting after class, *whereupon* he ran home to get his notes.

### 6.3.1 Repetition of a preposition may be omitted with successive objects (by land, sea or air)

#### 6.3.1.1 Some examples may also be construed as a compound object (by land and sea)

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## 7 CONJUNCTION

### 7.1 TYPES

7.1.1 COORDINATIVE connects independent words, phrases or clauses (and, or, but)

EG a. cities *and* towns, blue *or* orange b. That book is interesting *and* easy to read, *but* difficult to understand.

7.1.2 SUBORDINATIVE connects a dependent word or group of words to the word or group of words upon which it depends (although, because, if, that, unless)

EG a. *Although* I promised to bring dessert, I cannot bake a cake *unless* I find the mix.  
b. We have postponed the picnic *because* it has started to rain.  
c. Everyone had agreed to postpone the picnic *if* it rained.  
d. Did you say *that* the meeting has been postponed *until* it stops raining?

7.1.3 DEGREE AND COMPASISON (EG “as good as any, better than some”)

7.1.3.1 The first 'as' is sometimes omitted. (EG My hands are cold *as* ice.)

7.1.3.2 'than' and subordinate 'as' are sometimes identified as prepositions; this mistaken

7.1.3.3 Subordinate 'as' may connect an appositive or disjunctive noun to its referent.

EG a. My duties *as* chair of the committee require me to attend all meetings.  
b. *As* members of the same committee, we share similar responsibilities.

7.1.4 CORRELATIVE Certain pairs of conjunctions may connect words or groups of words.

7.1.4.1 COORDINATIVE (both...and, either...or)

EG a. *Either* Elizabeth *or* Leon will make the final decision. b. *Both* the car *and* the lawnmower are in the garage.

7.1.4.1.1 COORDINATIVE NEGATIVE (neither...nor)

7.1.4.1.2 COORDINATIVE SUBORDINATIVE (if...then, although...yet)

EG *Although* its prospects had seemed dim, *yet* the plan succeeded despite early trepidation.

### 7.2 OTHER USES

7.2.1 The subordinate conjunction 'because' is used in the compound preposition “because of.”

EG a. The population went hungry *because of* crop failure the previous summer.  
b. Production was accomplished on schedule *because of* improved methods.

7.2.1.1 Prepositional phrases with 'because of' function as adverbs.

CF 'due to,' synonymous with 'because of,' is an adjective with its customary preposition used as an adverb

### 7.3 WHEN OMITTED

7.3.1 The coordinative conjunction 'and' may be omitted between two independent clauses; a comma is used to indicate a pause

EG The sky is blue, the sun is bright and shining.

## 8 INTERJECTION

An interjection does not vary much in function, and does not change form. Although it may be augmented by word(s) which follow, the latter may be considered a separate interjection.

EG Aha! There it is!



## 9 PHRASES

A phrase is any group of related words. A clause is defined as a phrase containing at least one subject and one verb. The concept is more descriptive than formal, and does not really constitute a discrete grammatical category. The thesis of this Outline, however, is that groups of words routinely function as particular parts of speech, and thus identifying related groups of words is an essential part of grammatical analysis. RF the examples cited throughout the present work. Attention to phrases is also an essential factor in formal composition. Caution is necessary that the length and complexity of phrases of any sort, including subordinate clauses, be considered in order of the relative importance of those phrases, and that none distract from the main clause of the sentence.

### 9.1 TYPES

#### 9.1.1 NOUN

9.1.1.1 COMPOUND (peace and quiet, feast or famine)

9.1.1.2 modified by an adjectival word or phrase (a house in the woods, an open question, unfamiliar frame of reference)

9.1.1.3 OTHER USES

9.1.1.3.1 ADJECTIVE

9.1.1.3.1.1 ATTRIBUTIVE (my original home town)

9.1.1.3.1.2 POSTPOSITIVE (we the people)

9.1.1.3.1.3 DISJUNCTIVE (Topeka, capital of Kansas)

9.1.1.3.1.4 PREDICATE (My home is the cottage down the street.)

9.1.1.3.1.5 ADVERB a noun phrase introduced by a noun with participle (NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE)  
can modify an entire clause or sentence. (all things considered, ... ; that being the case, ...)

CF having stated the obvious, the speaker... ; waiting patiently, the audience...

An adjective phrase introduced by a participle alone is DISJUNCTIVE.

9.1.2 PRONOUN ["I Tiresias, though blind, throbbing between two lives" [< T. S. Eliot: *The Waste Land*, 218)]

9.1.3. ADJECTIVE (very *old* indeed, *mad* as a hatter)

NB The latter idiom ('mad as a hatter') refers to poisoning from the erstwhile (19th Century and before) use of mercury in processing the felt to make hats.

9.1.4 VERB (*act* quickly and carelessly, *make* plans in a hurry)

9.1.4.1 OTHER USES

9.1.4.1.1 NOUN

9.1.4.1.1.1 infinitive phrase (to tell the whole truth, not to omit the following)

9.1.4.1.1.2 gerund phrase (Telling the truth boldly is better than quietly believing a lie.)

9.1.4.1.2 ADJECTIVE

9.1.4.1.2.1 PRESENT PARTICIPIAL PHRASE (leaning casually on the fence)

9.1.4.1.2.2 PAST PARTICIPIAL PHRASE (nearly exhausted by constant labor)

9.1.5 ADVERB (not as a rule, here, there and everywhere, every now and then)

9.1.6 PREPOSITION usually requires an object

9.1.6.1 A prepositional phrase may function as a POSTPOSITIVE ADJECTIVE

EG a. The subject of *the lecture* is chemistry.

b. Beethoven composed this theme *with variations*. ['with variations' modifies 'theme' rather than 'composed']

9.1.6.2.1 TIME The meeting will not begin until *after lunch*.

9.1.6.2.3 MANNER Henry understood the speaker *with difficulty*.

CF a. He went *on condition of* obtaining free lunch. b. He chose to attend *in spite of* other obligations.

### 9.1.7 CONJUNCTION (if and when, as though, if and only if)

#### 9.1.8.1 Many phrases or other groups of words are used as an interjection

### 9.1.8.1.2 ADJECTIVE PHRASE (Absolutely wonderful!)

9.1.8.1.4 ADVERB PHRASE (Well, now!)

9.1.8.1.5 PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE (Of all the nerve!)

[illegible]

## 10 DEPENDENT (SUBORDINATE) CLAUSE

### 10.1 TYPES

#### 10.1.1 NOUN CLAUSE

10.1.1.1 with a FINITE verb may be introduced by a(n)

10.1.1.1.1 SUBORDINATIVE CONJUNCTION (EG We all hope *that* the lecture will start soon.)

10.1.1.1.1.1 INDIRECT DISCOURSE The content of another's act of speech may be paraphrased in a subordinate noun clause introduced by a subordinative conjunction.

EG a. Michael said that he would arrive at the airport long before his scheduled departure.

b. Cecelia asked whether he had confirmed his airplane reservation.

CF DIRECT QUOTATION the original words in quotation marks, treated collectively as a substantive direct object

EG a. Michael said: "I will arrive at the airport long before my scheduled departure."

b. Cecelia asked: "Have you confirmed your airplane reservation?"

10.1.1.1.2 INDEFINITE RELATIVE PRONOUN (EG *Whoever* arrives early has the best choice of seats.)

10.1.1.1.3 INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN

EG a. Susan asked the usher *who* would speak first. b. The usher first asked *what* the matter was.

10.1.1.1.4 INDEFINITE RELATIVE ADJECTIVE

EG a. The host announced early *what* subjects would be discussed.

b. The librarian agreed to furnish *whichever* book she selected.

10.1.1.1.5 INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVE

EG a. Robert asked the speaker *which* books she would recommend.

b. The speaker then asked Robert *what* books he already owned.

10.1.1.1.6 INDEFINITE RELATIVE ADVERB (EG No one knows *when* the lecture will begin.)

10.1.1.1.7 INTERROGATIVE ADVERB

EG a. The host asked the usher *where* the speakers had gone.

b. The usher then asked the host *why* he wanted to know.

10.1.1.1.8 INDEFINITE RELATIVE PROPOSITION

EG The plaintiff's attorney failed to establish *wherefrom* his injuries had resulted.

10.1.1.1.9 INTERROGATIVE PREPOSITION

EG The defendant's attorney asked the judge *whereof* any damages must consist.

10.1.1.2 INFINITIVE 'to' of the infinitive is omitted with certain verbs such as 'see,' 'hear,' 'let' *etc*

EG I saw you do that.

CF "I have heard the mermaids *singing*, each to each." [< T. S. Eliot: *The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock*, 124]

'singing' may appear to be either a progressive infinitive or as a present participle modifying 'mermaids'

That it is the former can be illustrated by putting the main verb in the passive voice

The mermaids were seen by me to be singing, each to each.

VS The mermaids singing each to each were seen by me.

10.1.1.3 A NOUN CLAUSE has the property of case

10.1.1.3.1 SUBJECT (EG *Whoever* arrives early has the best choice of seats.)

10.1.1.3.2 DIRECT OBJECT includes *statement* or *suggestion*, *indirect discourse* and *direct quote*

10.1.1.3.3 INDIRECT OBJECT

EG The host will give *whichever* speaker starts last enough time to finish his presentation.

#### 10.1.1.3.4 OBJECT OF PREPOSITION

EG Some of the audience seemed amused by what the first speaker said.

#### 10.1.2 ADJECTIVE CLAUSE

10.1.2.1 An ADJECTIVE CLAUSE may be introduced by a(n)

10.1.2.1.1 RELATIVE PRONOUN (EG People *who* live in glass houses shouldn't throw stones.)

10.1.2.1.2 RELATIVE ADJECTIVE (EG Mrs. Jones was finally selected Principal, *which* position had become vacant last year.)

10.1.2.1.2.1 A possessive relative pronoun often functions as a relative adjective

EG I met a man *whose* daughter is a student at the school.

10.1.2.1.3 RELATIVE ADVERB

EG Stephen suggested a restaurant *where* the food was reasonably priced.

10.1.2.1.4 RELATIVE PREPOSITION

EG The charges *whereto* the defendant had confessed were dismissed on a technicality.

10.1.2.1.5 POSTPOSITIVE NOUN CLAUSE

EG The fact that other suspects had been present influenced the judge's decision.

10.1.2.1.1.6 PREDICATE NOUN CLAUSE

EG His lawyer's argument was not the cause of the dismissal.

10.1.2.2 An ADJECTIVE CLAUSE usually follows the substantive it modifies, but may distinguish manner, as does the position of a single adjective

10.1.2.2.1 DISJUNCTIVE adds to the meaning of the substantive it modifies; is separated by commas

EG Mr. Jones, who owns the store on the corner, is my uncle.

10.1.2.2.2 POSTPOSITIVE qualifies or limits the meaning of a substantive; is not separated by commas

EG The man who owns the store on the corner is my uncle, Mr. Jones.

#### 10.1.3 ADVERBIAL CLAUSE

10.1.3.1 An ADVERBIAL CLAUSE may be introduced by a(n)

10.1.3.1.1 SUBORDINATIVE CONJUNCTION expressing condition

EG a. *If* the shoe fits, wear it. [condition, simple]

b. *Although* no one is certain, it may rain. [concession, absolute]

10.1.3.1.2 INDEFINITE RELATIVE ADVERB (EG *When* it rains, it pours.)

10.1.3.1.3 One of a pair of CORRELATIVE ADVERBS (EG *Where* there is smoke, there is fire.)

10.1.3.2 An ADVERBIAL CLAUSE: may indicate

10.1.3.2.1 TIME (EG The meeting began as *soon* as all the members were present.)

10.1.3.2.2 PLACE (EG A sheep will go *wherever* it is led.)

10.1.3.2.3 MANNER (EG *As* the twig is bent, so grows the tree.)

10.1.3.2.4 REASON (EG One lecture was delayed because the speaker arrived *late*.)

10.1.3.2.5 PURPOSE (EG Some speakers finished *early* so that the audience could ask questions.

10.1.3.2.6 CONDITION (EG Had I known the day *before*, I would have tried to attend the meeting.)

10.1.3.2.7 RESULT CLAUSE is adverbial when it modifies the verb of a clause upon which it depends

EG I did not learn of the meeting until the same day, *so* that I was not able to go.

10.1.3.2.7.1 When modified by an adverbial condition clause, a result clause may be independent.

EG If the speaker neglected a point, the next one would mention it.

EG a. The meeting ended sooner *than* its planners expected;  
b. The audience was not so large *as* they had anticipated.

EG Although Robert disagreed with the speaker's conclusions, he respected her rpremises.

EG Whether or not the speakers were correct, Robert and Susan both enjoyed the lectures.

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal blue ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There are no margins, text, or other markings on the paper.

## 11 SENTENCE

Most sentences contain a least one INDEPENDENT CLAUSE.

### 11.1 TYPES

11.1.1 SIMPLE contains a single independent clause (EG Someone is ringing the doorbell.)

11.1.2 COMPLEX contains one independent (main) clause, and one or more dependent clauses

EG It is my neighbor who lives down the street.

11.1.3 COMPOUND contains two or more independent clauses

EG She visits often, and we have lunch together.

11.1.4 COMPOUND-COMPLEX contains two or more independent clauses, and one or more dependent clauses

EG My neighbor who lives down the street visited yesterday and we had lunch together.

### 11.2 PROPERTIES

11.2.1 DECLARATIVE makes an assertion; usually followed by a period

EG a. I cooked breakfast by myself. b. The bacon caught fire.

NB Grammatical validity does not ensure factual soundness.

EG “One man's ceiling is another man's floor.” [adage; also < Paul Simon, 1973]

11.2.2 CONDITIONAL RF Conditional Mood

11.2.3 INTERROGATIVE asks a question; followed by a question mark (EG Was any grease spilled?)

11.2.3.1 RHETORICAL QUESTIONS are ironic and have a known answer; they are often asked in surprise *etc.*

EG a. Where does the time go? [idiom] b. Seriously, you forgot to lock the car?

11.2.3.1.1 A rhetorical question, often negative, may be appended to a sentence for emphasis; a period may be used rather than a question mark.

EG a. We hardly have enough time left, *now do we?* b. Actually, I did lock the car, *didn't I.*

c. You sold the jewelry, *didn't you?*

The entire sentence may be simple question, or 'didn't you?'

rhetorical, depending on relative accent and intonation.

11.2.4 IMPERATIVE a direct command; with an imperative verb, the subject is usually second person, understood; generally followed by a period or an exclamation point

EG a. Turn the stove off, quickly! b. Now clean up the kitchen.

11.2.5 EXCLAMATORY expresses surprise or emotion; may consist of an interjection, a fragment, or at least one independent clause; usually followed by an exclamation point

11.2.5 a. Fire on the stove! b. What a close call! [idiom] c. It was an accident!

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“When the language declines, the people lose faith in what  
they hear, and turn to violence.” – W. H. Auden (1907-1973)

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